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THE
ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES
EXPLAINED AND SYSTEMATISED.

AFTER THE PLAN OF BECKER'S GERMAN
GRAMMAR.

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P R E F A C E .

THE publication of this little work has been suggested, and in a sense necessitated by a deficiency experienced in the course of my official duties, as an Inspector of Schools. This deficiency was most felt in the collective examinations of Pupil Teachers, where, beyond the ordinary modes of parsing, I found it almost impossible to give out any questions on Syntax and the analysis of sentences, to which a common meaning was attached by the pupils assembled, or any number of distinct answers returned.

The capacity of parsing individual words with accuracy is now expected of all the more advanced scholars in every well conducted school. It has not yet, however, been well understood that this is but the Alphabet of Grammar; and that the mental advantage to be derived from the science can only be secured, by leading the pupil to a further analysis of language, of which the separate words give us merely the elements. To guide the pupil through such a course of grammatical analysis is the object I have had in view in the following pages; which, although brief, will be found to contain general principles that may be expanded by the intelligent teacher into innumerable examples and illustrations.

The first part treats of the elements which enter into the simple sentence. The methods in which the *essential* parts of the sentence may be expanded are here classified, and the mode of analysing them illustrated by examples. The second part treats of the complex and compound sentence; embracing their various contractions, and also exhibiting, by further examples, the most convenient methods of analysis. The third part treats of the *logical* analysis of sentences, and shews in what way the fundamental rules of Syntax may be deduced from it.*

The pupil who goes systematically through the course thus pointed out, with copious examples and exercises, judiciously selected, will realise the same *kind* of mental discipline as we generally expect to derive from the study of the ancient languages. I do not mean that the discipline will be by any means equally complete or valuable with that, which is derived from classical culture; but the necessity of gaining some insight into the structure of sentences, and the laws of *thought* there involved (which are the main advantages of studying the ancient languages), is here, to some extent, provided for, without departing from the usages and idiom of our own tongue.

* I may here state how, in the case of Pupil Teachers, the course of study can be best regulated. All Pupil Teachers at the close of the first year should be able to parse correctly according to the plan exhibited at the end of Part III. At the close of the second year they should thoroughly comprehend the analysis of the *simple* sentence as shown in the examples at the end of Part I. At the close of the third year they should be able to analyse complex and compound sentences, with their contractions, according to the method exhibited at the end of Part II. At the close of the fourth and fifth years they might add some general knowledge of the logical analysis of language; proportioned, of course, to their capacity of entering into the more abstract ideas of the science.

The method of analysis I have adopted is that which has been applied to the German language with so much advantage by Dr. Karl Ferdinand Becker. Since the publication of his celebrated grammar, in Germany, every enlightened teacher in that country has seen the advantage of proceeding upon the principles there inculcated. In addition to this, however, I have also compared the plans of several other school grammars, particularly that by Dr. A. Heussler, of Basel, which, though based entirely on Becker's principles, shews many excellencies of its own in point of concentration and arrangement.

These, then, are the literary authorities I have followed in reference to the *method of analysis*. What I have done over and above this is, chiefly, to adapt the method to the usages of our own tongue—to furnish it with examples in the English idiom—and to remodel the whole form, in which the subject is presented, so as to make it as accessible as possible to the youth of our own country.

The chief advantage I look for from pursuing grammar on these principles is to shew the folly, in education, of putting Etymology over the head of Syntax, and of inculcating the mere study of individual words, and their structure, in preference to the investigation of language as the great complex organ of human thought. I have long been convinced that the proper study of language is the preparatory discipline for all abstract thinking, and that if the intellect is to be strengthened in this direction, we must begin the process *here*.

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THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES,

&c.

INTRODUCTION.

§ 1.

LANGUAGE is the utterance of our thoughts in words. When we make an assertion, the words that we employ are said to form a sentence.

A sentence accordingly may be defined to be : *Any number of words conveying a complete assertion.*

REMARK.

The word *assertion* must here be taken in its widest extent, to signify *any distinct utterance*, whether of a judgment or a wish. Thus the assertion may be—

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Affirmative, | Birds fly. |
| 2. Interrogative, | Are you hungry ? |
| 3. Imperative, | Come away. |
| 4. Optative, | May it please your Majesty. |

The grammatical construction in all these cases is precisely similar, though the order of the words may differ. We shall take the *affirmative* sentence, therefore, being the most important, as a type of the whole.

§ 2.

That respecting which an assertion is made is called *the subject*. That which is affirmed of the subject is called *the predicate*.

The tree is green.

. The rain falls.

Here "the tree" and "the rain" are the subjects of which something is asserted; "is green" and "falls" are the predicates, expressing that which we severally affirm respecting them.

§ 3.

When the predicate is a transitive verb, the assertion is not complete without specifying the thing to which the action passes over. The word or words employed in such cases to complete the assertion, is usually called *the object*.

William defeated Harold.

Here "William defeated" would be an incomplete affirmation. By adding the word "Harold" we complete the sense, and thus perfect the sentence.

PART THE FIRST.

ON THE PARTS OF SENTENCES.

§ 4.

THE *essential* parts of every sentence are the subject, and the predicate; and when the latter is a transitive verb, it requires an object to complete it. In addition to these three parts, however, certain adjuncts may be employed with each, in order to render the sentence either more distinct, or more specific in its signification. Each of these parts will require distinct consideration.

REMARK.

The error is often committed of enumerating the *copula* amongst the essential parts of a sentence. The employment of this term belongs properly only to the science of formal logic. The meaning of the copula is the link that binds two notions together into *one* complete thought. This link in grammar is supplied sometimes by the inflexion of the verb, sometimes by the verb "to be," and sometimes by other auxiliaries. In every case, however, it is *included* in the grammatical definition of the predicate, and consequently has no distinct place in the sentence *grammatically considered*.

I.

OF THE SUBJECT.

§ 5.

When the subject consists of a single word, with or without the article, it is called a *simple* subject; when adjuncts are employed to define its signification more fully, it is called an *enlarged* subject.

A. THE SIMPLE SUBJECT.

The simple subject is always a word standing in the nominative case, and answers to the question, Who or What?

Brutus perished.

It may consist of any of the following *kinds* of words:—

1. A noun, *Cæsar* fell.
2. A pronoun, *He* fell bravely.
3. Any other part of speech used as a noun, such as—
 - a. An adjective, *Many* are called, but *few* chosen.
 - b. A participle, *Walking* is healthy.
 - c. An infinitive mood, *To walk* is healthy.

REMARK.

The infinitive mood of the verb has all the essential characteristics of a noun. Hence, it may stand either as the subject or the object of a sentence, and be virtually in the nominative, or in the objective case. In the sentence “He loves *to walk*,” the phrase *to walk* is really the *object*, being equivalent to “He loves *walking*.”

B. THE ENLARGED SUBJECT.

§ 7.

The idea contained in the simple subject may be further

determined, and the subject itself, consequently, *enlarged*, in the following ways :—

1. By an adjective—

The *good* man is happy.
Now came *still* evening on.—*Milton.*

2. By a noun in apposition—

William, *the Conqueror*, ascended the throne.

3. By a participle, or participial clause—

William *having died*, left the kingdom to his son.
Harold, *being shot*, perished in the battle.
She, *weeping*, turned away.
Encinctured in a twine of leaves,
A lovely boy was plucking fruits.— Coleridge.

4. By a noun in the possessive case—

A father's care protects the child.

5. By a preposition and its case—

The love of *money* is the root of all evil.
The desire of *learning* is commendable.

6. The subject may be a phrase or a quotation—

"*God wills it,*" was Peter's watchword.

7. Motion made.
REMARKS.

1. Several adjuncts may be employed to enlarge the subject, if so used as to qualify the same noun.

Good, old, red wine is the best.

In the same way, several nouns may also stand in apposition with it.

2. When a participle is used to enlarge the subject, it may have its object attached to it.

William, having conquered *Harold*, ascended the throne. Remote *from towns*, he ran his godly race.—*Goldsmith*.

3. Several participles, or several prepositional cases may also be employed to enlarge the subject.

Cæsar, *having conquered* Gaul, *disciplined* his legions, and *equipped* his fleet, sailed over to Britain.

A man of *wisdom, truth, and goodness*, is not to be despised.

§ 8.

The subject may be enlarged by employing any number of the methods, above mentioned, at the same time.

No longer *Autumn's glowing* red
Upon your forest hills is shed.—*Scott*.

Socrates, *a man of wisdom, beloved by his friends, and feared by his enemies, having been condemned by his judges, and having refused submission to them*, perished in prison.

Here the subject, Socrates, is enlarged—first, by a noun in apposition, and a prepositional phrase depending on it; secondly, by three passive participles each followed by a preposition and its case; and thirdly, by an active participle with its object.

II.

OF THE PREDICATE.

§ 9.

The predicate affirms respecting the subject either—

- 1st. What it is ; or,
- 2ly. What it does ; or,
- 3ly. What it suffers.

Man is mortal.

The snow falls.

The child was neglected.

The predicate may be *simple*, or it may be *enlarged*.

A. THE SIMPLE PREDICATE.

§ 10.

The simple predicate is either, 1st, A single verb ; or, 2ndly, The verb “to be,” with a noun, an adjective, or some equivalent phrase.

Autumn *departs*.

Man *is mortal*.

Europe *is a Continent*.

He *is of sound mind*.

§ 11.

The verb, which forms the predicate, may be either active, or passive ; it may be in the indicative, the subjunctive, the potential, or the imperative mood ; and it may be of any number or any person. The *infinitive mood, however, and the participles can NEVER form the predicate of a sentence*. The former only takes the place of a substantive ; the latter of an adjective.

REMARK.

Verbs are often called *finite*, to distinguish them from the *infinitive* and the *participial* forms. Employing that term, we might say—*The predicate always requires a finite verb, otherwise it would fail of conveying an assertion*.

B. THE ENLARGED PREDICATE.

§ 12.

The simple predicate is enlarged in two ways—

1. When we *complete* the assertion.

2. When we more accurately *define* or *determine* the assertion.

Plato wrote dialogues magnificently.

Subject	Predicate	Completion of Predicate	Extension of Predicate.
Plato	wrote	dialogues	magnificently

1. ON THE COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.

§ 13.

The predicate requires to be *completed*, whenever the verb does not suffice to convey an entire notion of the action which we affirm of the subject.

This always takes place when the verb is strictly transitive, as well as in some other instances, that have yet to be pointed out. The completion of the predicate is then termed *the object*.

REMARK.

A transitive verb is often used *intransitively*. In such cases a completion is not necessary. E. G. The boy *reads*.

§ 14.

The predicate may be completed in the following ways :—

1. By a noun in the objective case.

Brutus killed *Cæsar*.

2. By a noun in the nominative case.

Howard was called a *philanthropist*.

Edward became *king*.

REMARK.

Where there is no *action* passing from the subject to the object, but both refer to the same person or thing, they must both be in the nominative case. The latter nominative is still, however, strictly speaking, the object of the verb, inasmuch as it expresses that *to which* the action of the verb is directed.

3. By a pronoun or any other part of speech used as a substantive—

Pronoun,	<i>Him</i> the Almighty power hurled headlong.— <i>Milton</i> .
Adjective,	He commiserated <i>the wretched</i> .
Infinitive mood,	He loved <i>to muse</i> .

4. By a preposition and its case—

Pyrrho despaired *of truth*.

REMARK.

It would be more accurate here to consider the preposition as a part of the verb, and the word "*truth*" to be its object.

§ 15.

The predicate may be completed in some cases by a double object :—

1. By two nouns, pronouns, &c., in the objective case—

We call *Demosthenes* A GREAT ORATOR.

He teaches *the scholars* WRITING.

Give *me* THAT BOOK.

He wept *his eyes* RED.

2. By a noun, pronoun, &c., in the objective case, and a preposition with the word depending on it.

Brutus accused *Cæsar* of AMBITION.

The beggar asked *me* FOR ALMS.

§ 15.

The predicate may be completed by a *phrase*, or quotation—

The king remained *true to his word*.

And like a man in wrath, the heart
Stood up and answered "*I have felt*."—*Tennyson*.

I made *him* MINDFUL OF HIS PROMISE.

In the last case there is a double object, and one of them a phrase.

2. ON THE EXTENSION OF THE PREDICATE.

§ 16.

The predicate, in addition to being completed, may also be more accurately defined or determined. This takes place when any of the circumstances are expressed, which tend to render its signification more *specific* or distinct.

The eagle flies *swiftly*.

The merchant travelled *to Rome*.

§ 17.

The predicate may be extended in various ways :—

1. By an adverb, or an adverbial phrase—

Leonidas died *bravely*.

What seekest thou *here* ?

He fought *most bravely of all*.

2. By a preposition and the word or words depending on it—

He marched *with a large army*.

The rolling year is full of *Thee*.—*Thomson*.

In silent horror, o'er the boundless waste,

The driver, Hassan, *with his camels* passed.—*Collins*.

3. By a noun in the objective case—

He rides *every day*.

4. By a participle used adverbially—

He reads *walking*.

The church of the village
Stood *gleaming* white in the morning's sheen.—*Longfellow*.

5. The predicate may be extended in several of these ways at once—

Upward I looked, *with shuddering awe*.—*Griffin*.

§ 17.

The circumstances which determine more accurately the meaning of the predicate may be classified under four heads :

1. Those relating to time.
2. Those relating to place.
3. Those relating to manner.
4. Those relating to cause and effect.

§ 18.

ADJUNCTS OF TIME attached to the predicate, are used to specify one of the following conditions :—

- a. Some particular *point* or *period* of time answering to the question, *When ?*

He came *yesterday*.

I get up *at sun rise*.

He wakes *early*.

- b. *Duration* of time answering to the question, *How long ?*

He suffered *for many years*.

REMARK.

In this instance the preposition may be left out, and the noun used alone in the objective case.

- c. *Repetition*, answering to the question, How often ?

The sea ebbs and flows *twice* a day.

He comes *very often*.

§ 19.

ADJUNCTS OF PLACE, attached to the predicate are, also used to specify three different relations.

- a. *Rest* in a place, answering to the question, Where ?

He lives *in London*.

- b. *Motion to* a place, answering to the question, Whither ?

The ship sails to-morrow *for America*.

He goes *to London* by railway.

Civilization travels *westwards*.

- c. *Motion from* a place, answering to the question, Whence ?

Learning came *from the east*.

§ 20.

ADJUNCTS OF MODE OR MANNER, attached to the predicate, are used to specify the following particulars :—

- a. *Manner*, properly so called—

Birds fly *quickly*.

Just starting from the corn she *cheerly* sings.—*Bloomfield*.

Now *in contiguous drops* the flood comes down.—*Swift*.

- b. *Degree*—

I am *exceedingly* sorry.

Wellington's army was *almost* exhausted.

c. Instrument—

William Rufus was shot *by an arrow*.

d. Accompanying circumstances—

They consult *with closed doors*.

Hannibal crossed the Alps *with a large army*.

Kampfenfeldt went down *with twice four hundred men*.

§ 21.

ADJUNCTS OF CAUSE AND EFFECT, attached to the predicate are used to specify the following particulars:—

a. The ground or reason of an action—

He perished *from hunger*.

b. Conditions of an action—

With diligence and study he can master his lesson.

With perseverance all things are possible.

c. The final cause or purpose of an action—

Colleges were founded *for the encouragement of learning*.

The eye was made *for seeing*.

For your sake we are killed all the day long.

d. The consequences of an action—

He does it *at his peril*.

The good man swears *to his own injury*.

e. The material cause of an action—

Cloth is made *of wool*.

REMARK.

There are several other *shades* of meaning coming under the two last heads, which need not to be distinctly specified.

§ 22.

A sentence may combine any number of the foregoing extensions, whether of the subject or the predicate, together. The following examples will illustrate the methods by which such sentences may be most conveniently analysed :—

METHOD OF ANALYSING THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

EXAMPLE 1.

On hearing these arrangements, the king freed from all uncertainty, displayed a greater degree of vigour.

EXAMPLE 2.

Almost within musket shot of each other, separated only by some ditches, the two armies passed two hours, motionless and in complete silence.

EXAMPLE 3.

Confessed from yonder slow extinguished cloud,
All ether softening, sober evening takes
Her wonted station in the middle air,
A thousand shadows at her back.

EXAMPLE 4.

Him, the Almighty power,
Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition.

EXAMPLE 1.

Part of Sentence.	Modification.	Example.
SUBJECT	The King
enlarged by	participial Clause	freed from all uncertainty
PREDICATE	displayed
completed by	enlarged Object	a greater degree of vigor
extended by	adjunct of Time	on hearing these arrangements.

EXAMPLE 2.

SUBJECT	qualified	The two armies
enlarged by	participial Phrase	separated only by some ditches
PREDICATE	passed
completed by	qualified Object	two hours
extended by	a adjunct of Place ..	almost within musket shot of each other.
	b adjunct of Manner ..	motionless.
	c adjunct of Manner ..	in complete silence.

EXAMPLE 3.

Part of Sentence.	Modification.	Example.
SUBJECT	qualified	Sober evening.
enlarged by	a Pass. part. phrase .. b Act. part. phrase....	Confessed from yonder slow extinguished cloud all ether softening
PREDICATE	takes
completed by	qualified object	her wonted station
extended by	a adjunct of place b accompanying cir- cumstance	in the middle air a thousand shadows at her back

EXAMPLE 4.

SUBJECT	qualified	the Almighty power
PREDICATE	hurled
completed by ...	qualified Object	him flaming
extended by	adjunct of 1 Manner	headlong
	2 Place from.....	from the sky .
	3 Consequence	with hideous ruin
	4 Place to	down to bottomless per- dition.

Or the Analysis might be arranged more compactly in the following manner:—

ANALYSIS OF THE PARTS OF SENTENCES.

CASE.	SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	COMPLETION OF PREDICATE.	EXTENSION OF PREDICATE.
1	The King Freed from all un- certainty.... } enlarged by participle.	Displayed....	A greater degree of vigor. } object. enlarged by preposition.	On hearing these } adj. of arrangements } time.
	The two armies	Passed	Two Hours	Almost within mus- } place ket shot of each other } where.
2	Separated only by some ditches } enlarged by participle.			Motionless & in } manner. complete silence. }
	Sober evening.....	Takes	Her wonted station object. enlarged	In the middle air } adjunct of place.
3	Confessed from yonder slow extin- guished cloud. } enlarged by passive participle.			A thousand sha- } accompan- dows at her back } circumstance.
	All other softening } enlarged by act. participle.			
4	The Almighty power.....	Hurled	Him..... object. enlarged by prepl.	Headlong manner
			Flaming	From the ethereal } place sky } whence.
				With hideous ruin } conse- and Combustion. } quence.
				Down, to bottomless } place perdition..... } to.

PART THE SECOND.

ON THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF SENTENCES.

§ 23.

Sentences are of three kinds ;—simple, complex, and compound.

§ 24.

1. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A sentence is called simple when it contains only one finite verb.

REMARK.

A simple sentence contains one main assertion, without any subordinate or conditional assertions to modify it. The parts, however, of which it consists may be indefinitely enlarged so long as a separate clause is not employed.

§ 25.

A simple sentence may consist of :—

1. A simple subject and a simple predicate—

Moses died.

2. An enlarged subject and simple predicate—

Moses, the man of God, died.

Hung, was a sweet scented garland, new twined by the hands of affection.—Longfellow.

3. A simple subject and enlarged predicate :—

a. Enlarged by an object—

Evening sheds her gems of dew.—Burns.

b. Enlarged by determining circumstances—

At my feet the city slumbered.

c. Enlarged both by an object and by determining circumstances—

*But knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
Rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll.*

4. An enlarged subject and enlarged predicate—

The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea.—Gray.

*Somewhat apart from the village, and near the basin of Minas,
Benedict Bellefontaine, the wealthiest farmer of Grand Pré,
Dwelt on his goodly acres.—Longfellow.*

*A faint erroneous ray,
Glanced from the imperfect surfaces of things,
Flings half an image on the straining eye.—Thomson.*

2. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

§ 26.

A sentence is termed complex, when, with only one principal subject and predicate, it contains two or more finite verbs. The part containing the main subject and predicate, is called the *principal* sentence ; that which contains any of the other finite verbs is called a *subordinate* sentence.

PRINCIPAL.

He drove the horse,

SUBORDINATE.

Which I bought yesterday.

SUBORDINATE.

If you go,

PRINCIPAL.

I shall soon follow.

In yonder cot, [along whose mouldering walls,

In many a fold, the mantling woodbine falls,]

The village matron kept her little school.—*Kirke White.*

Here the portion in brackets is the subordinate sentence.

§ 27.

Subordinate sentences or clauses are of three kinds:—

A. Substantive clauses ; B. Adjective clauses ; C. Adverbial clauses.

REMARK.

A simple sentence, it should here be explained, is rendered complex when any part of it is detached from the close relation in which it stood to the original construction, and is made to assume the form of a separate though subordinate clause. If the part thus detached be a noun, the corresponding sentence will be a substantive clause ; if an adjective, an adjective clause ; if an adverb, an adverbial clause. From this we derive the basis of the above classification. The principal sentence could not part with its verb without *ceasing to be a sentence* ; hence, we have no such thing as a “*verbal clause*.”

A. ON THE SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE.

§ 28.

A substantive clause is a subordinate sentence, which, in reference to the principal sentence, occupies the place, and follows the construction of a noun substantive.

It is a law of nature, *that water should congeal by cold.*

Instead of—

The congelation of water by cold is a law of nature.

What you can do to-day, put not off till to-morrow.

Here the subordinate phrase is the subject of the whole sentence.

REMARK.

It should be remarked that a subordinate sentence, as containing a finite verb, may have a subject, predicate, and object of its own, with all their several extensions.

§ 29.

As the substantive clause occupies the place of a noun in the structure of the entire sentence, of which it forms a part, it may take either of the following places:—

1. The place of the subject—

It is wise, *that we should obey the laws of the country.*

Subject, [Obedience to the laws of the country] is wise.

It cannot be determined *where Attila was buried.*

Subject, [The burial place of Attila] cannot be determined.

REMARK.

In sentences like these, the subordinate clause, grammatically speaking, holds the place of a noun in apposition to the pronoun “it.”

It (viz.: that we should obey the laws of the country) is wise.

It (viz.: where Attila was buried) cannot be determined.

2. The place of the object—

Duty requires of us, *that we should relieve the suffering.*

1. E. Duty requires of us [the relief of the suffering]. Object.

He rejoices *that we are free.*

1. E. He rejoices at [our freedom]. Object.

§ 30.

The substantive clause is introduced either by the conjunction “that;” or by interrogative particles, such as “Where?” “When?” “How?” &c.; or by the interrogative pronouns “Who?” and “What?”

I know, *that* he is willing.

Where he is, I cannot say.

Who did it, is a profound mystery.

REMARK.

The character of the English language allows us often to omit the conjunction “that” in introducing a substantive clause.

I fear he will not succeed.

He said he would go.

§ 31.

B. ON THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.

An adjective clause is a subordinate sentence, which, in reference to the principal sentence, occupies the place, and follows the construction of an adjective.

The man, *who is prudent*, looks to the future.

i. e. The [*prudent*] man looks to the future.

They deserve to lose their liberties, *who will not spare time from selfish pursuits, to guard them.*

§ 32.

The adjective clause is introduced by the relative pronoun *who* or *which*; or by any other word that can be used in place of the relative, such as *that*, *how*, *wherein*, *whither*, *why*, *wherefore*, &c.

The house *that I have built*, is very convenient.

I do not know the way, *how* we must set about it.

The country, *wherein* they dwelt, was fertile.

The reason, *wherefore* I came, is obvious.

In all these cases the relative and its clause explains or describes something respecting the antecedent noun, and therefore performs the function of an adjective to the whole sentence.

REMARK.

The nature of the English language allows the relative, in many instances, to be omitted without disturbing either the construction or the sense.

The home *I left* was a happy one.

We must make the best terms *we can*.

§ 33.

As the adjective clause may qualify *any noun* in the principal sentence ; and as nouns are used to designate either the subject or the object, or any of the numerous circumstances relating to the predicate, it is manifest that this clause may be attached to either of the three.

a. To the subject—

The *merchants*, who dwell there, are wealthy.

b. To the object—

They consumed all the *provisions*, which we had collected.

c. To an extension of the predicate—

We found him *in the house*, that he had formerly inhabited.

C. ON THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.

§ 34.

An adverbial clause is a subordinate sentence, which, in reference to the principal sentence, occupies the place and follows the construction of an adverb :—

Where thou goest, I will go.

We love him, *because he first loved us.*

§ 35.

As the *adverb* is designed primarily to give extension to the predicate, by determining any of the circumstances connected with it, so the *adverbial clause* is mainly employed to qualify the predicate of the principal sentence, by specifying the same conditions of time, place, manner, and causality.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES RELATING TO TIME.

§ 36.

The adverbial clauses relating to time specify some event which takes place either *before* that which is affirmed in the principal sentence, or *at the same time* with it, or *after* it :—

a. Before it—

When he has finished his lesson, he goes out to play.

b. At the same time with it—

When war rages, the people always suffer.

c. After it—

He arranges his books, *before he leaves the study.*

§ 37.

With reference to events which are *contemporaneous* with that of the principal sentence, some adverbial clauses specify the *point* or *period* of time in which they occur ; others, the *duration* of the time ; and others, the *repetition* of the coincidence :—

a. Point or period of time—

As we were going down the hill, the horse fell.

When I was in America, the election of the President took place.

When at length the centre of the army approached, the enthusiasm of the people knew no bounds.

b. Duration of time—

Whilst the Danes were revelling, Alfred entered their camp.

I stood by, *whilst it was being done*.

c. Repetition of the coincidence—

Whenever he saw a subject in distress, the king always relieved him.

REMARK.

These clauses may be abbreviated either by changing the particle and verb into a *participle* ; or by omitting the verb altogether.

The horse fell *coming* down the hill.

He learned Greek, *when an old man*.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES RELATING TO PLACE.

§ 38.

Like the adverbs of place, the *adverbial clauses* also specify three different relations in reference to the principal affirmation :—

a. Rest in a place—

I cannot tell, *where they have laid him.*

b. Motion to a place—

Tell me, *whither he has gone.*

This is expressed colloquially by “where . . . to.”

c. Motion from a place—

Thou canst not tell, *whence it cometh*, or whither it goeth.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES RELATING TO MANNER.

§ 39.

Adverbial clauses relating to manner are employed *to institute a comparison* with the fact stated in the principal affirmation. The comparison may assume various shades of meaning, such as—

a. Likeness and analogy.

He succeeds, *as his father did before him.*

As the hart panteth after the water brooks,
So panteth my soul after thee, O God.

We are such stuff, *as dreams are made of,*
And our little life is rounded with a sleep.—*Shakspeare.*

b. Proportion—

Wisdom is easier to attain, the longer you pursue it.

It becomes colder, *the higher you ascend.*

c. Dissimilarity—

The spire is not so lofty *as it appears.*

The eagle flies higher, *than the eye of man can reach.*

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES OF CAUSE AND EFFECT.

§ 40.

Adverbial clauses of cause and effect are employed to designate some reason, condition, concession, purpose, or consequence relating to the principal sentence:—

a. Ground or reason—

The stars appear small, *because they are distant from us.*

Because they have no changes, therefore they fear not God.

b. Condition—

If Alfred had not made good laws, he would not have been called the father of his country.

I will not let thee go, *except thou bless me.*

c. Concession—

Although we disregard it, the evil day will come.

However fair his promises may be, yet he is not to be trusted.

d. Purpose—

Honour thy father and mother, *that it may be well with thee.*

In order that he might escape, he changed his dress.

e. Consequence—

He labours so diligently, *that he will be sure to succeed.*

He is not man, *that he should lie.*

REMARKS.

1. The infinitive mood is often used in English to express a *purpose*—
He expended large sums of money *to make* himself popular.
2. The adverbial clause is often expressed by a *nominative absolute*—
Summer departing, the swallows disappear.

CLASSIFICATION OF PARTICLES USED TO INTRODUCE SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

SUBORDINATE SENTENCE.	1.	SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE.	{	That Who, what, which Where, whither, whence Wherein, whereto, &c. Why, wherefore	}	Used indirectly.
	2.	ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.	{	Who, which, that Where, whither, whence Whether Why, wherefore	}	Used as the relative.
	3.	ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.	{	<i>Time.</i>	Point of Time.	{ Before, ere As, now that, as soon as After, when
					Duration of Time.	{ Whilst As long as
					Repetition.	{ When Whenever As often as
				<i>Place.</i>	Rest in	{ Where?
					Motion to	{ Whither?
					Motion from	{ Whence?
				<i>Manner.</i>	Comparison.	{ So as As if As though
					Proportion.	{ The ... the (with comparative) So far as According as
					Dissimilarity	{ Than Not so, as
				<i>Cause.</i>	Ground or Reason.	{ Because Inasmuch
					Condition.	{ If Unless, Except In case of
					Concession.	{ Though, altho', indeed Notwithstanding, however
					Purpose.	{ That So that In order that

3. ON THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

§ 41.

A sentence is called compound when it contains two or more assertions *co-ordinate* with each other.

REMARK.

Becker divides clauses into two kinds — subordinate and co-ordinate. A principal sentence with one or more *subordinate* clauses, we have already named *complex*. A principal sentence with one or more *co-ordinate* clauses we denominate compound; it being really made up of two or more independent assertions.

§ 42.

There are three relations in which the parts of a compound sentence may stand to each other, 1st, That in which two assertions are simply *coupled* together; 2ndly, That in which one assertion is *opposed* to another: 3dly, That in which we *account* for one assertion by means of another.

1. The first of these relations is called copulative—

The man walked, *and* the boy ran.

2. The second is called adversative—

Wheat does not grow wild, *but* it must be sown.

3. The third is called causative—

We could obtain no horses; *therefore* we were obliged to go on foot.

A. THE COPULATIVE RELATION.

§ 43.

The coupling of two assertions together in the copulative relation, always implies the *superaddition* of the one to the other, but implies it in different senses :—as

a. When there is an equal stress laid upon both clauses—

Man proposes, and God disposes.

He neither did his duty, nor did he attempt to excuse himself.

b. When a preponderating stress is laid upon the *second* clause—

He not only forgave the man his fault; *but* he sent him away loaded with benefits.

c. When there is a progressive increase of the stress from clause to clause—

He *first* neglected his duty; *then* he despised reproof; *next*, &c.

REMARK.

Several co-ordinate clauses may follow each other in copulative relation, being connected by various links, and sometimes merely placed side by side with each other.

Between the tropics the barometer attains its greatest height at nine in the morning; it then sinks till four in the afternoon; after which it again rises and attains a second maximum at a quarter past ten in the evening; it then begins to fall till it reaches a second time its lowest point at four in the morning.

Mrs. Somerville.

B. THE ADVERSATIVE RELATION.

§ 44.

The adversative relation places the co-ordinate parts of a sentence in *opposition* to each other. This it does in two ways :—

1. When the second clause *negatives* the first—

He did not sail to China ; *but* he held on his course to Australia.

2. When the second clause *limits* the first—

We ought to rejoice ; *but* we must rejoice with trembling.

In islands far from continents *the number of plants is small*, but of these a large proportion occur no where else.

C. THE CAUSATIVE RELATION.

§ 45.

The causative relation between the parts of a sentence exhibits the one part as logically *dependent* on the other. The dependence may involve—

1. An effect or consequence (moral or physical)—

He was always an honourable man ; *and, therefore*, his friends trusted him.

The town was ill defended ; *and, therefore*, it soon became a prey to the besieging army.

2. A ground or reason—

I go away happy ; *for* I have satisfied him.

CLASSIFICATION OF PARTICLES USED TO CONNECT CO-ORDINATE SENTENCES.

CO-ORDINATE SENTENCES.

1.
Copulative

1. Equal stress
on both clauses.

{ And, neither, nor
Also
Likewise, as well as
Moreover, partly
Further

2. Prepondera-
ting stress on
second clause.

{ Not only, but
Not merely, but

3. Progressive
stress.

{ First, next, then, &c
As well as

2.
Adversative

1. When second
clause negatives
the first.

{ Not... but
On the other hand

2. When second
clause limits the
first.

{ But
Only
Nevertheless
However

3.
Causative

1. Effect, or
consequence.

{ Therefore, thereupon
On that account, accordingly
Consequently
Hence
And so

2. Ground or
reason.

{ For
Because

CONTRACTION OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

§ 46

It often happens that the different clauses of a compound sentence have either the same subject, or the same predicate, or the same object, or the same extensions. In such cases *the part which is common to each co-ordinate clause* is not necessarily repeated, and the sentence is then said to be contracted.

§ 47.

Contractions may take place equally well whether the connexion of the clauses be copulative, adversative, or causative :—

a. Copulative—

The crocus and *the tulip* close their blossoms in the evening.
God sustains and *governs* the world.

b. Adversative—

Not an enemy, *but* a friend has done this.

c. Causative—

Lions have claws, *and consequently* were intended to seize their prey.
 He knows algebra, *much more* arithmetic.

§ 48.

In compound sentences there may be :—

1. Two or more subjects with one predicate—

The trade winds and monsoons are permanent.
 Neither gold nor silver can purchase peace of mind.

2. Two or more predicates and one subject—

The air expands and becomes lighter by heat.

3. Two or more objects to one predicate—

The sun illumines the mountains and the valleys.

He makes his sun to shine on *the good* and *the evil*.

4. Two or more similar extensions to one predicate—

Moisture is evaporated *from the water*, and even *from the snow*.

Without *application* and *study*, we can never obtain knowledge.

REMARK.

We often find a *manifold* extension not only of the predicate, but also of the subject and the object. In many cases, however, it is better to regard the sentence as *simple*, and to look upon the extensions merely as an enlargement of the *one* idea, to which they are attached.

We admire the writings *of the Greeks and Romans*.

Instead of regarding this as a compound sentence *abbreviated*, we may regard the phrase "*Of the Greeks and Romans*" as an enlargement of the simple object, viz., "*writings*." The sentence will then be simple.

§ 49.

Several of the above contractions may be combined in one sentence.

With every effort, with every breath, and with every motion voluntary or involuntary, a part of the muscular substance becomes dead, separates from the living part, combines with the remaining portions of inhaled oxygen, and is removed.

Here there are four predicates, having but one subject, and three extensions of those predicates distinct from each other. To express the entire meaning of this passage in *separate* sentences, we should have to repeat the subject with *each* predicate, making four simple sentences, and then repeat each of those sentences with each of the extensions, making twelve sentences in all.

The following method of analysing complex, compound, and contracted sentences is recommended :—

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX, COMPOUND, AND CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

EXAMPLE I.

When we speak of Plato as the ideal philosopher, we sometimes forget that the people of Greece were pursuing ideals, during the whole time in which he lived.

COMPLEX SENTENCE.

a. When we speak of Plato as the ideal philosopher..	Adverbial sentence (of time) to b.
b. we sometimes forget.....	Principal sentence to a.
c. that the people of Greece were pursuing ideals.....	Substantive sentence, object to b.
d. during the whole time	Adjunct of time to c.
e. in which he lived	Adjective clause to d.

EXAMPLE 2.

I urged not many things, which it came into my mind to do ; for I neither wished, nor did I feel as if I had the right, at an hour of so much inquietude, to say ought, to add, to the burden, already weighing upon them.

COMPOUND SENTENCE.

a. I urged not many things	Principal sentence.
b. which it came into my mind to do	Adjective sentence to a, enlarging the object.
c. for I neither wished.....	Principal co-ordinate sentence, causative to a.
d. nor did I feel....	Principal sentence, copulative to c, causative to a.
e. as if I had the right	Adverbial sentence (of comparison) to d.
f. at an hour of so much inquietude	Adjunct of time to g.
g. to say ought	Extension of object to e.
h. to add	{ Adjective clause to "ought," equivalent to "which might add."
i. to the burden already weighing upon them	Extension of predicate to h.

EXAMPLE 3.

Upon reaching the palace, they told me that the Emperor was exercising in the Hippodrome; towards which I then bent my steps.

COMPLEX SENTENCE.

a. Upon reaching the palace	{ Adverbial sentence (of time) to b, equivalent to "as I reached," &c.
b. they told me	Principal sentence.
c. that the Emperor was exercising in the Hippodrome	Substantive sentence, object to b.
e. towards which I then bent my steps	Principal sentence, co-ordinate to b.

EXAMPLE 4.

The Greeks were disagreed among themselves, as the enormous host of the Persians approached; and yet Themistocles managed not only to gain the battle of Salamis, but also to chase Xerxes, the Persian king, out of Greece.

COMPOUND SENTENCE.

a. The Greeks were disagreed, &c.	Principal sentence to b.
b. as the enormous host, &c.	Adverbial sentence (of time) to a.
c. and yet Themistocles managed	Principal sentence to d and e, adversative to a.
d. not only to gain the battle, &c.	Substantive sentence to c, copulative to e.
e. but also to chase Xerxes out of Greece	Substantive sentence to c, copulative to d.
the Persian king	Enlargement of object to e.

EXAMPLE 5.

We hoped that the house might escape, and were certain that it would, unless it were fired from within ;
 since from its insulated position the flames of the neighbouring buildings could not reach it.

COMPOUND CONTRACTED SENTENCE.

a. We hoped	Principal sentence.
b. that the house might escape	Substantive sentence, object to a.
c. and were certain	Contracted principal sentence, copulative to a.
d. that it would	Substantive sentence to c.
e. unless it were fired from within	Conditional adverbial sentence to c.
f. since the flames from the neighbouring buildings } could not reach it	Causative sentence, co-ordinate to a and c.
e. from its insulated position	Adjunct of cause to f.

EXAMPLE 6.

That which may profit and amuse is gathered from the volume of creation;
For every chapter therein teemeth with the playfulness of wisdom.

COMPOUND CONTRACTED SENTENCE.

a. That is gathered from the volume of creation . . .	Principal sentence.
b. which may profit	Adjective sentence to a.
c. and amuse	Adjective sentence to a, co-ordinate to b, and contracted.
d. for every chapter therein teemeth	Co-ordinate causative sentence to a.
e. with the playfulness of wisdom	Completion of predicate to d.

EXAMPLE 7.

As I walked through the wilderness of this world, I lighted on a certain place where was a den, and laid me
down in that place to sleep; and as I slept, I dreamed a dream.

COMPOUND CONTRACTED SENTENCE.

a. As I walked through the wilderness of this world. .	Adverbial sentence (of time) to b.
b. I lighted on a certain place.	Principal sentence to a and c.
c. where was a den	Adjective sentence (of place) to b.
d. and laid me down to sleep	Co-ordinate copulative sentence to b, contracted.
e. and I dreamed a dream.	Co-ordinate copulative sentence to b and d.
f. as I slept	Adverbial sentence (of time) to e.

If ere, when faith had fallen asleep,
 I heard a voice "Believe no more,"
 And heard an ever-breaking shore,
 That tumbled in the godless deep—

A warmth within the breast would melt
 The freezing reason's colder part,
 And, like a man in wrath, the heart
 Stood up, and answered, "I have felt."

D

a. When faith had fallen asleep ..	Adverbial sentence (of time) to b and c.
b. If ere I heard a voice, "believe no more"	Adverbial sentence (condition) to e and h.
c. And heard an ever-breaking shore	{ Adverbial sentence (condition) to e and h, co-ordinate to b.
d. That tumbled in the godless deep	Adjective sentence to e.
e. A warmth within the breast would melt.....	Principal sentence to b and c.
f. The freezing reason's colder part ..	Object to e.
g. (and) like a man in wrath	Extension of predicate to h.
h. The heart stood up	Principal sentence co-ordinate with e.*
i. And answered	Principal sentence contracted, co-ordinate to e and h.
k. I have felt	Object to i.

* For this sentence to be strictly grammatical the verb "stood" should be *potential*; as it stands in copulative relation to "*would melt*,"

PART THE THIRD.

ON THE LOGICAL ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

§ 50.

GRAMMATICAL analysis teaches us to view all the parts of a sentence, according as they are related to each other by the laws and usages of language. *Logical* analysis teaches us to view them according to the relation of the *thoughts*, which the various forms of speech, employed in them, involve.

§ 51.

There are two elements involved in every complete thought:— A material and a formal. The matter of a thought is the object itself, whether real or imaginary, about which the mind is employed; the form of the thought is the *relation*, in which that object is for the time conceived to exist, whether in regard to ourselves, or to any other object.

Thus, in the sentence “John is within,” the word John expresses the matter or subject we are thinking about; the phrase “is within,” expresses the *relation* in which that subject is for the time conceived to exist.

§ 52.

Language is the expression of thought; and must, therefore, contain the same elements and the same characteristics as thought itself. Hence, we may divide all words, and parts of words, into two great classes,—those which express the matter of our thoughts, and those which express the forms or relations of them. The former class of words we term *notional*, the latter we term *relational*.

Thus, the words *man*, *speak*, *good*, convey each a determinate notion, which we can think of apart from any thing else. On the other hand, such words as *he*, *to*, *therefore*, have no force *in themselves*, but derive all their signification from the connexion in which they stand to other words, and the relations they indicate between them.

I. OF NOTIONAL WORDS.

§ 53.

The whole sum of our *notions* may be reduced to two great classes:—Those which relate to *being*, and those which relate to *power* or *activity*. All *notional* words, accordingly, must be words denoting either, 1st, some real or supposable *existence*; or, 2ly, some real or supposable *action*.

§ 54.

Words that imply *existence* have, on that account, been termed *substantives*. Of those that imply *action*, there are two kinds: 1st., When the word denotes, in addition to the action, a judgment or wish of the speaker respecting it, it is called *a verb*. 2ly. When the word, on the other hand, involves no immediate judgment of the speaker, it is called *an adjective*.

The sun *shines*.

Here we have an action *and a judgment* respecting it.

The *bright* sun.

Here we have an action belonging to the sun, denoted by the word "bright;" but *no immediate judgment* expressed.

REMARK.

All the qualities of objects, are properly speaking *powers* residing in them; for when an object has the power of affecting us in a certain way, we term that power an *attribute* or *quality* of the object.

OF THE SUBSTANTIVE.

§ 55.

When a substantive is used to note a single individual, it is called a *proper noun*. When it is used to denote all the individuals of a class, it is called a *common noun*. If a given action or quality, whether of mind or matter, is separated from the substance to which it belongs, and regarded as a real existence by itself, then the word denoting it is called an *abstract noun* :—

Proper nouns,	John, London, Saturn.
Common nouns,	Tree, book, star.
Abstract nouns,	Brightness, life, virtue.

REMARK.

Becker makes those words which denote *materials*, such as water, air, honey, &c., a separate class of nouns. They may be allowed, however, to take their place without any violence under the head of common nouns. The names are, in this case, common to such materials, in all their possible varieties.

Adjectives and adverbs are sometimes used as substantives.

OF THE VERB.

§ 56.

The action denoted by the verb may be regarded from various points of view :—

1. When it is regarded as terminating in the actor, and producing no effect upon any thing else, the verb is called *neuter* or *intransitive*—

I walk. He sits. They work.

2. When the action is regarded as affecting something beyond the actor, the verb is called *active* or *transitive*—

I hurt *my hand*. He carried a *large burden*.

3. In the case of any action which passes from an agent to an object, we may direct our attention to what is *suffered* by the object, instead of considering what is *done* by the agent. To express this we may use the verb in such a way as to signify *suffering* instead of *doing*; making the object which suffers the *subject* of the affirmation. When a transitive verb is thus used, it is said to be in the *passive voice*—

Active, Brutus *killed* Cæsar.

Passive, Cæsar *was killed* by Brutus.

4. When the agent is regarded as being the *object* of his own action, the verb is called *reflective*—

Judas killed himself.

REMARK.

The verb “to be” is not properly a notional word, but a *relational*; except when used in the sense of “*to exist*.”

OF THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 57.

The adjective is used in two different relations, 1st, When it expresses an attribute to a noun ; 2ndly, When it forms part of the predicate in a sentence. In the former case it is termed *attributive* ; in the latter it is called *predicative*.

Attributive, Yellow gold.

Predicative, Gold is yellow.

The predicative adjective, together with the verb to be, is precisely equivalent to an ordinary finite verb. The adjective in this case expresses the *action*, the verb to be conveys the *assertion*.

The following Table exhibits a complete Classification of all Notional Words used in our Language :—

NOTIONAL WORDS.	I.	Notional words signifying <i>action</i>	a.	Verb	{ <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Transitive or objective 2. Intransitive or subjective 3. Reflective
			b.	Adjective	{ <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Predicative 2. Attributive
NOTIONAL WORDS.	II.	Notional words signifying <i>existence</i> .		Noun . Sub- stantive	{ <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Proper 2. Common 3. Abstract

II. OF RELATIONAL FORMS.

§ 58.

Relational forms are those, which, without having any independent meaning of their own, bind together our notions into complete and determinate thoughts, and thus give rise to complete sentences.

The sun has already risen.

Here the *notions* are "sun" and "risen." The word "*has*" connects the one with the other, binding them together into one complete thought; while the word "*already*" expresses a *relation of time* in regard to the person who is supposed to make the affirmation.

REMARK.

It is proper here to explain the difference between a complete thought and a mere notion. A complete thought is an act of the mind, which involves a judgment between two notions made at the very time when they come into consciousness. The *expression* of such a judgment must assume the form of an assertion; so that in uttering a complete thought we must always have both a subject and a predicate. On the other hand, a notion does not involve any judgment made by the speaker *at the time*. The judgment involved in it is one which has been previously made, and is now expressed simply as an existing fact. Thus when I say, "The man is wise," I express a judgment made by my mind *at the very time*, and this judgment is a *complete thought*. On the other hand, when I use the phrase "The wise man," there is no *immediate* judgment implied, but simply a recognised fact, the cognizance of which depends upon a *previous* mental process.

The adjective, therefore, used as an *attribute* to a noun, gives rise simply to a *notion* more specific than the noun itself. The adjective used, with the verb "to be," as a predicate, expresses a *complete thought*.

§ 59.

The relations which language expresses, are of two kinds:—

1. The relations which our notions bear to *each other*.
 2. The relations which they bear to the *speaker*.
- e. g.* The general has marched into the enemies country.

Here we have one relation between *the general* and *marched*; another between *marched* and *country*; and a third between *enemies* and *country*. The first of these relations is expressed by the agreement between the nominative case and the verb; the second by the preposition *into*; the third by the flexion of the possessive case.

In addition to this we have the relation of past time, between the *event* and the *speaker*, as indicated by the *tense-flexion*.

§ 60.

As there are two *kinds of notions* expressed in language, and two *kinds of relations* in which they are each placed, it follows, that there are in all *four* distinct relations, which are presented to us in the structure of sentences.

- a. The relation of notions which signify action, to notions which signify existence.
- b. The relation of notions which signify existence, to notions which signify action.
- c. The relation of notions which signify action to the speaker.
- d. The relation of notions which signify existence to the speaker.

A careful analysis of these four relations will give us all the relational forms now used in the English language.

A. THE RELATION OF NOTIONS, WHICH SIGNIFY ACTION TO THOSE WHICH SIGNIFY EXISTENCE.

§ 61.

Of the notions which signify action, there are two kinds, denoted severally by the *verb* and the *adjective*.

1. When a given action is affirmed respecting a given subject, a verb is necessarily employed. The relation thus expressed between the subject and the action is termed "*the predicate relation*;" and the two related notions are then combined together into *one complete thought*.

The tree blossoms.

Here, the noun "tree" expresses a given *existence*; and the verb "blossoms" a given *action*. The agreement formed between them (indicated by the inflexion of the third person of the verb) unites the two notions together into one complete thought, or mental *judgment*.

2. When the action is merely *attributed* to the subject by virtue of a judgment passed at some previous time and not now renewed, an *adjective* is employed. The relation is then termed *attributive*, and the two related notions are combined into *one more specific notion*.

A bright sun.

Here the word "sun" expresses a given existence, and word "bright" a given action. The agreement between the two (indicated in English by the contiguity of the words) unites the two notions into *one more specific notion*.

The relations of action to existence, accordingly, are expressed in English 1st., by the personal inflexions of the verb; and, 2ly., by the position of the adjective.

N.B. In languages where the adjective is *declined*, the relation between the subject and attribute is expressed by its inflexions.

B. THE RELATION OF NOTIONS, WHICH SIGNIFY EXISTENCE
TO THOSE WHICH SIGNIFY ACTION.

§ 62.

When a given existence is made the *object* towards which any given action is directed, the relation between them is termed the *objective relation*. Objective relations are of two kinds, those which *complete* our idea of the action, and those which merely *extend* it.

1. When a verb or an adjective indicates an action directed to something apart from the agent, we can only complete the idea of the action by specifying what the object is.

Bees produce *honey*.

He is worthy *of regard*.

Here the terms “honey” and “regard” complete the idea of the action expressed by the words “*produce*” and “*worthy*.” The relation between them is termed a *completion* of the predicate; and is indicated in the first case by the position of the noun to the verb, and in the second by the preposition “of.”

REMARK.

In languages where the noun is declined, the objective relation is expressed by the *inflection* of the objective case. In English a distinct grammatical form for the subject, and the object is only employed in the case of pronouns :—

I love my father.

My father loves *me*.

2. When the idea of the action is not *completed* but only more accurately determined by an object, then the relation between them is termed an *extension* of the predicate.

He rode *to London*.

Here the word London does not complete our idea of the action, but only determines its *direction*, this objective relation being indicated by the preposition "to."

§ 63.

The idea of the action may be extended by means of an object in any of the following ways :—

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. By indicating the <i>time</i> . | } of an action in relation
to that object. |
| 2. By indicating the <i>place</i> . | |
| 3. By indicating the <i>manner</i> . | |
| 4. By indicating the <i>cause</i> . | |

The relations of existence to action, accordingly, are expressed in English, 1st., by the objective case; 2ndly., by prepositions; and, 3rdly., by adverbs, or adverbial phrases.

C. THE RELATION OF NOTIONS SIGNIFYING ACTION TO THE SPEAKER.

§ 64.

When a speaker utters an assertion respecting an action, there are various circumstances connected with it, which may have some specific relation *to himself*. For example, *a*. He may describe the action as a reality, a non-reality, or a possibility, &c. Or, *b*. he may define the *time* at which it occurred in relation to the time in which he is himself describing it. Or, *c*. he may describe the *locality* of the action as it stands related to his own locality. Or, *d*. he may describe the magnitude or intensity of the action according to his own standard of judgment. All these relations have a proper mode of expression in the construction of the sentence.

§ 65.

a. The first class of the above relations in which an action is conceived to stand to the speaker, is that which we most commonly designate by the *mood* of the verb. There are three fundamental distinctions in reference to the *mode*, in which an action is conceived of. It is conceived of—

1. As a reality or non-reality. This relation is expressed by the verb in the *indicative mood*, whether affirmative or negative :—

The bird sings.
The sun does not shine.

2. As a possibility :—

1. A conditional possibility—

The snow will melt, if the sun shines.

2. A questionable possibility—

Does the tree blossom?

3. A wished for possibility—

May he soon arrive.

3. As a necessity :—

1. A physical necessity—

The house *must* fall.

2. A moral necessity—

You *must* be there.

3. A logical necessity—

He *must have* already completed his engagement.

The different relations of mood are expressed in various ways :—

1. By modal inflexions ;

2. By auxiliary verbs ;
3. By adverbs of manner ;
4. By the position of the words, as in the interrogative form.

§ 66.

b. The second class of the above mentioned relations, in which an action is supposed to stand to the speaker, is designated in grammar by the word *tense*. Under the relation of tense we distinguish—

1. Present time.
2. Past time.
3. Future time.

The time in which an action is conceived to occur in relation to the speaker, is denoted either—

1. By the inflexion of the tenses, or,
2. By auxiliary verbs.
3. By adjuncts of *time*.

§ 67

c. The third class of the above relations in which an action is conceived to stand to the speaker is expressed by a peculiar class of adverbs, which define the locality of an object or event in reference to the person observing or speaking of it—

Here are the flowers.

The scholars are *below*.

My friend is *behind*.

§ 68.

d. The fourth class of the above relations, in which an action is considered to stand to the speaker, is that expressed,

1. By adverbs of degree—

I am *very* sorry.

2. By the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective, when they express a judgment of the speaker—

Cæsar was *a greater* man than Pompey.

Alfred was *the greatest* sovereign of his age.

D. THE RELATION OF NOTIONS, SIGNIFYING EXISTENCE TO THE SPEAKER.

§ 69.

Existences may be divided into two great classes : persons and things. Each of these, when expressed in a sentence, may stand in a given relation to the speaker :—

1. The personal relations are indicated by the pronouns I, thou, he, &c., and by the corresponding inflexions of the verb ; for, the same individual, it is evident, may be designated either by the *first*, *second*, or *third* personal pronoun, according to *the relation* he bears to the speaker.

2. Things bear a relation to the speaker, according to their number and multitude. When several things of the same kind are thought of, the plural number, or certain numeral adjectives indicate the process of thought, which has been employed in doing so :—

Twenty men.

When *indefinite* multitude is thought of it is expressed by indefinite numeral adjectives :—

Much corn.

A few nuts.

To give a general view of *all* the above relations, the following table is subjoined :—

RELATION OF NOTIONS.		I. To each other.	
II. To the speaker.	A. Of an action to an existence.	1.	<div> <div>PREDICATIVE RELATION</div> <div>.....</div> <div> 1. Personal flexion of the verb 2. The verb "to be" </div> </div>
		2.	
	B. Of an existence to an action.	1.	<div> <div>OBJECTIVE RELATION</div> <div> <div> 1. Completing the predicate 2. Extending the predicate </div> <div> Objective case Preposition </div> </div> </div>
		2.	
	C. Of an action.	1. MOOD....	<div> <div>Reality Possibility Necessity</div> <div> Moods of verb Auxiliaries of mood Adverbs of Mood </div> </div>
		2. TENSE ...	<div> <div>Present Past Future</div> <div> Tense forms of verbs Auxiliaries of tense Adverbs of time </div> </div>
		3. PLACE ...	<div> <div>Locality and direction</div> <div>Adverbs of place</div> </div>
		4. DEGREE...	<div> <div>Intensity Frequency</div> <div> Adverbs Comparison of adjectives </div> </div>
	D. Of an existence.	1. PERSON ..	<div> <div> 1. Person speaking 2. Spoken to 3. Spoken of </div> <div> Personal inflexion of verbs Personal pronouns </div> </div>
		2. NUMBER..	<div> <div> 1. Numerals 2. Indefinite numeral adjective </div> </div>

DEDUCTION OF THE FUNDAMENTAL RULES OF SYNTAX.

§ 70.

The fundamental rules of syntax are not arbitrary. They spring from the laws of thought, as embodied in the various languages of mankind ; and may be at once classified and explained by means of the logical analysis we have just concluded.

Solongas we deal with individual words, and express by them only individual notions, the province of syntax is untouched. Syntax first commences, and its laws become first applicable when two or more notions are combined so as make a *complete thought*.

We have already shown that there are two great classes of notions expressed in language ;—those indicating *being*, and those indicating *activity*. The fundamental laws of syntax express the *relations* which exist between these two classes of ideas.

REMARK.

There are various rules of syntax which spring from the relation of these ideas to *the speaker*. But these are only *secondary*. The *fundamental* principles arise from the relation of ideas to *each other*.

§ 71.

The primary relations which exist between the two great classes of ideas above mentioned, are *the following* :—

1. The relation between a given action and a given existence the latter being viewed as the agent or subject of the action :—

The sun shines.

2. The relation between a given action and a given existence the latter being viewed as the *object* towards which the action tends :—

It dazzles *my eyes*.

3. The relation between an action previously noticed, and the existence to which it is attributed :—

The *shining* sun.

The first is called the *predicative* relation, the second the *objective* relation, the third the *attributive* relation. All the laws of syntax, with the exception of those which relate to the connexion of sentences, fall under one of these three heads.

REMARK.

When the predicate is either a verb or an adjective, the fact of its expressing action is obvious. When, however, it is a common noun coupled with the verb to be, this fact is not so manifest. It must be remembered in this case that the word *action* is employed in a very wide sense, meaning *any power, that resides in an object, of affecting us ; i. e. any phenomenon* distinct from the existence to which it belongs. When I say "John is a man," the real meaning of the assertion is :—*that John presents phenomena, to which we attach the idea "human."* Thus, the phrase "*is a man*" really denotes a phenomenon ; *i. e.* it denotes *an action* in the sense in which all *attributes* denote it.

1. THE PREDICATE RELATION.

§ 72.

The subject expresses a given *existence*, the predicate expresses a given *action*. So long as these stand unrelated to each other, we have simply two isolated notions. Unite them

so that the given action is referred to the given existence as its subject, and we have a *complete thought* :—

Gold.	Glitter.	Two <i>notions</i> .
Gold glitters.		One <i>thought</i> .

§ 73.

The predicative relation between two notions is indicated as follows :—

1. By the subject being in a given case, called *the nominative*.

REMARK.

In many languages, as the Latin, Greek, &c., the nominative case of all nouns is distinguished by a peculiar form or inflexion. In English this only occurs in the pronouns, where the words I, thou, we, &c., as distinguished from me, thee, us, always mark the *subject* of an assertion. In other instances the nominative is determined by its *position* in the sentence.

2. By the agreement as to number and person between the subject and the verb :—

The man instructs the boy.

Here, 1st., the nominative case is indicated by the *position* of the word man ; and, 2ndly., the relation between the subject “man” and the action “*instructs*,” is marked by the final *s*, which indicates the singular number and the third person. Unless such an agreement existed, the thought, implied in the assertion, would be incongruous and absurd.

§ 74.

The two fundamental rules of the predicative relation therefore, are as follows :—

THE SUBJECT OF THE VERB MUST STAND IN THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

THE VERB MUST AGREE WITH ITS NOMINATIVE IN NUMBER AND PERSON.

REMARKS.

As these two fundamental rules arise from the congruity of the two notions in every assertion ; so all the minor modifications of them arise from certain modifications of *the thought* to be expressed. For example :—

1. Two singular nouns will have a verb in the plural, if so combined as to form a plural idea, and not otherwise :—

John and Thomas are running. John or Thomas is running.

2. A singular noun, if it convey a plural idea, will have a plural verb, and not otherwise :—

The nation *are* happy. The nation *is* prosperous.

3. Adjectives, infinitive moods, phrases, &c , may form the subject of a sentence, when they are put in the form of *a notion implying existence*. In all such cases they are treated grammatically exactly like a noun in the nominative case.

II. THE OBJECTIVE RELATION.

§ 75.

In this relation we have the same elements as in the one just explained. A given action is expressed, as before, by a verb ; but instead of considering the source from which the action springs, we now consider the point to which it tends. In other words, we connect action with its object instead of its subject.

§ 76.

The direction or course of an action may refer either, 1st., to *the object itself, which the action immediately affects*; or, 2ndly., to the circumstances of time, place, manner, and causality, by which that course or direction is *modified*. In the first instance the objective relation is said to *complete* the predicate; in the second simply to *extend* it.

§ 77.

1. Completion of predicate.—The relation between the action expressed by the verb, and the object which that action immediately affects is indicated by the employment of the objective case. Hence the fundamental rule respecting the completion of the predicate runs as follows:—

ACTIVE VERBS GOVERN NOUNS OR PRONOUNS IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

REMARK.

The objective case in many languages is expressed by the form or inflexion of the word. In English a change of form only takes place in the pronouns. In other instances it is indicated by the position of the word, which is generally placed immediately *after* the predicate. Where emphasis is required, however, it is often put before the subject:—

Such happiness I can never hope for.

Whom not having seen, we love.

§ 78.

There are several exceptions to the general rule respecting the object of the verb, all of which are grounded on some peculiarity in the thought:—

1. When the subject and the object express *the same thing*, the latter is in the nominative case as well as the former :—

John becomes a man.

Here the course of the action is not *away from* the subject ; and consequently the objective case, which indicates such a course, is not employed. In *reflective* verbs, however, the objective case is retained, because a distinction is implied between the agent as subject, and the agent as object.

2. The object is often *apparently* governed by a preposition :—

I hope *for* success.

He despairs *of* the victory.

Here “success” and “victory” are, strictly speaking, the objects of the two verbs “hope for,” and “despair of,” inasmuch as they evidently *complete* the assertion. They stand quite in a different relation to a word governed by a preposition, which indicates some circumstance of time, place; manner, and causality.

3. Sometimes the infinitive mood is employed as the object of a verb. Here, however, it is, grammatically speaking, exactly equivalent to a noun in the objective case.—Vid. Sec. 5.

REMARK.

a. Some verbs have two objects, one denoting the *person*, the other the *thing*. This takes place when both the person and the thing, to which the action relates, must be *expressed* in order to complete the predicate :—

He gave *me* a book.

b. *Adjectives* and nouns, which imply action in the transitive sense, may express their object in the objective case, with and sometimes without a preposition.

The subject is *worthy* our consideration.

§ 79.

2. Extension of predicate.—The relations of an action in regard to the time *when*, the place *where*, the manner *how*, and the cause *wherefore*, it was done, forming the various extensions of the predicate are expressed by adverbs, prepositions, and the inflexions of mood and tense. Hence the following rules relating to the extension of the predicate :—

1. ADVERBS MODIFY THE MEANING OF ANY WORDS WHICH CONVEY THE IDEA OF ACTION.

The words expressing action in various forms are the *verb* the *adjective*, and the *adverb* ; consequently, any of these may be modified by the use of adverbs :—

He runs quickly.

An exceedingly good horse.

An *exceedingly* good horse runs *very quickly*.

2. PREPOSITIONS GOVERN NOUNS AND PRONOUNS IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

The use of the objective case with prepositions arises from their pointing out the direction or tendency of an action ; *i. e.* from their expressing one of its *objective relations*.

REMARK.

The inflexions and the auxiliaries of mood and tense, point out for the most part, the relation of a given action to the speaker

III. THE ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION.

§ 80.

In the attributive relation, as in the other two, we have a word implying *action*, and a word implying *existence*. The word implying action, however, is not, in this instance, *assertive*. It simply expresses the notion of an action derived from some previous judgment :—

The shining sun.

Here the whole phrase, “the shining sun,” expresses simply one specific notion. This notion, however, is derived from a previous judgment, viz. : “The sun shines.”

Hence the following fundamental rule :—

EVERY ADJECTIVE QUALIFIES SOME NOUN.

REMARK.

The qualification of the noun is, in fact, the expression of a previous judgment, of which that noun was the subject, and the action, now attributed to it, the predicate. In languages where the adjective is inflected, this relation is shown by *the inflexions*. In English it is indicated by its position immediately before the noun.

§ 81.

The general rule respecting the attribute of a noun undergoes various modifications, which are indicated in various ways :—

1. Attributes of *number* are expressed by the numeral adjectives :—

Twenty men. The *twelfth* day. *Many* thanks.

2. Attributes of possession are expressed by the possessive pronouns, and the possessive case of the noun—

My mother. *My father's* house.

3. Attributes of distinction are expressed by the *article* and the demonstrative *pronouns* :—

The man. This man. That man.

4. Attributes are expressed by a *participle*, with or without adjuncts :—

The sun, shining in its strength.

5. Attributes are expressed by means of an *adjective clause*, introduced by the relative pronoun. In this case the relation is marked by the gender and the number of the relative :—

The man, *whom* I saw.

The houses, *which* I built.

REMARK.

The *case* of the relative, as of the noun, indicates whether it be the subject or the object of the clause in which it stands :—

The man, *whom* I saved.

The man, *who* saved me.

6. Attributes are expressed by *prepositions* with their case—

The son *of* Adam. A man *of* wisdom.

'The fear *of* hurting him prevented me.

7. Attributes are expressed by a *noun in apposition*—

William, the Conqueror.

All these cases are modifications of the general rule, and may easily be understood as belonging to the attributive relation from the fact of their expressing the result of a previous judgment.

§ 82.

The only remaining rules of syntax of a fundamental character are those which relate to the *connexion* of sentences. These are all grounded in the one principle, that CONJUNCTIONS MAY COUPLE TOGETHER ANY NOTIONS OR ASSERTIONS, WHEN THEY EACH HOLD THE SAME RELATION IN A SENTENCE.

The application of this rule is obvious. If conjunction couple two nouns, they must both be *subjects* or *objects*; if two verbs, they must both be predicates of the same mood and tense; if two sentences, they must both be principal sentences, or both subordinate ones of the same kind.

All the laws of syntax should be studied as being expressions either of the predicative, the objective, or the attributive relations of words, or of the mode of their connexion in clauses and sentences.

The following mode of Parsing is recommended :—

WORD.	KIND OF WORD.		PART OF WORD.	PART OF SENTENCE.
A	Article ..	Indefinitive	Nominative case..	} Subject.
censorious	Adjective..	Pos. degree	Nominative case..	
disposition	Noun	Abstract ..	Nominative case..	
casts	Verb	Transitive..	Ind. pres.3rd per. s.	Predicate.
every	Adjective..	Distributive	Objective case ..	} Completn. of Predicate.
character..	Noun	Abstract ..	Objective case ..	
into	Preposition			} Extension of Predicate.
the	Article ..	Definitive..	Objective case ..	
darkest ..	Adjective..	Sup. degree	Objective case ..	
shade	Noun	Comparative	Objective case ..	
which....	Pronoun...	Relative ..	Objective case ..	
it	Pronoun...	3rd person.	Nominative case...	
will.....	Verb	Auxiliary..	Indicatingfut.tense	
bear.	Verb	Transitive..	Ind. fut. 3rd p. s...	

gm



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